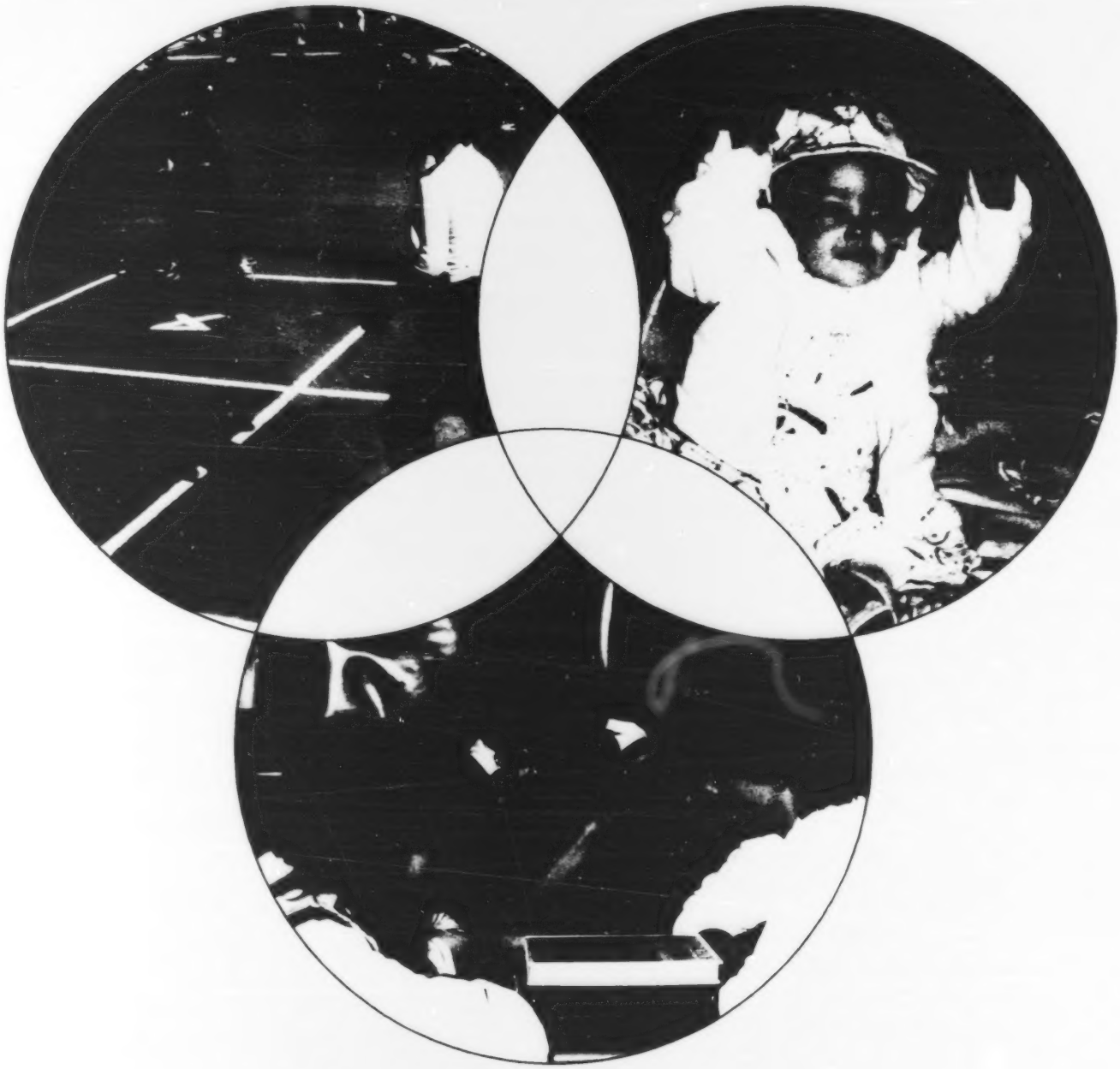
STUDENTS' INTERACTIONS

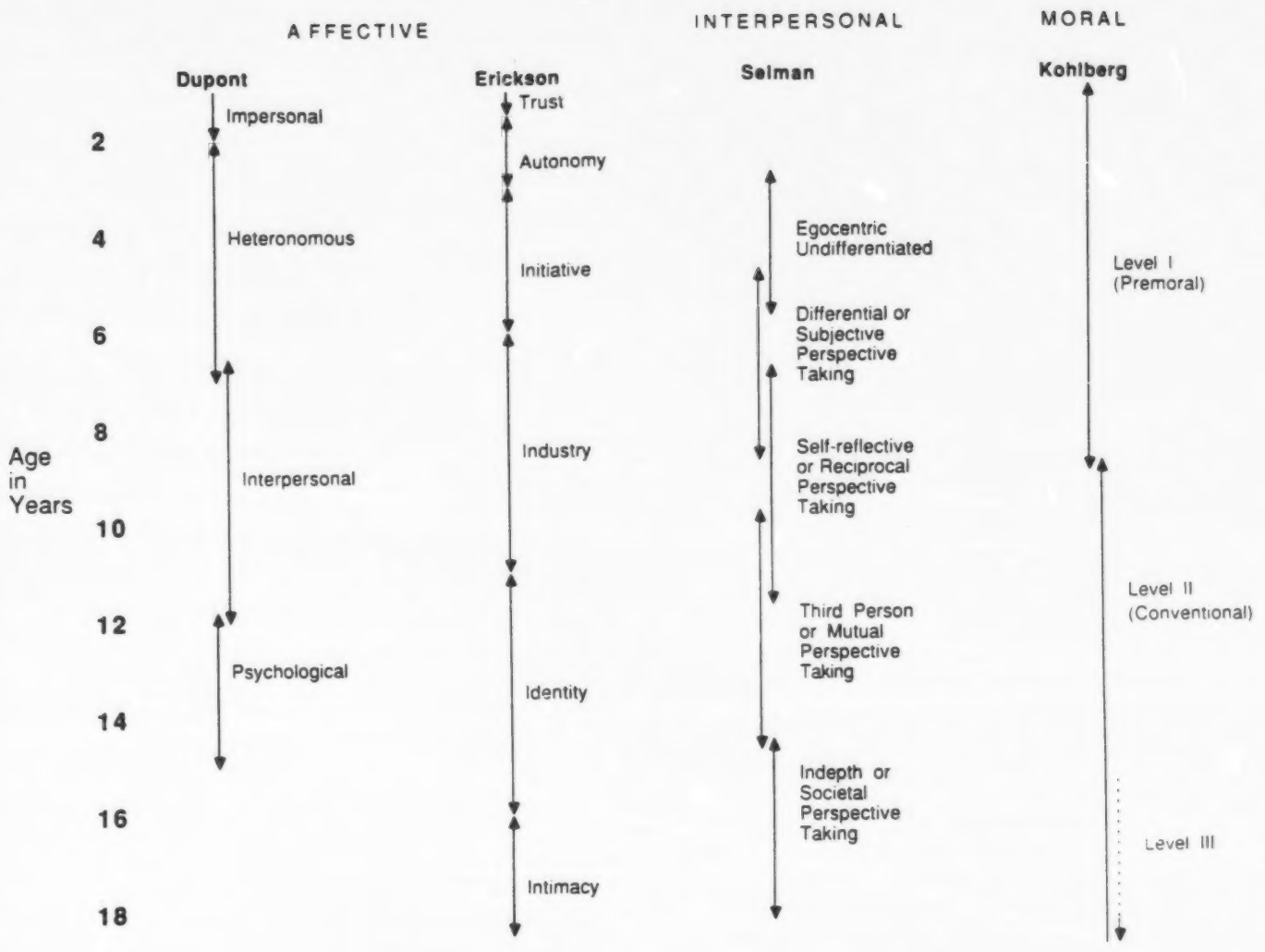
DEVELOPMENTAL FRAMEWORK: THE SOCIAL SPHERE



Alberta Education

Student Programs and Evaluation Division

Curriculum Support Branch


AFFECTIVE
INTERPERSONAL
MORAL
Dupont
Erickson
Selman
Kohlberg
Impersonal
Heteronomous
Interpersonal
Psychological
Trust
Autonomy
Initiative
Industry
Identity
Intimacy
Egocentric Undifferentiated
Differential or Subjective Perspective Taking
Self-reflective or Reciprocal Perspective Taking
Third Person or Mutual Perspective Taking
Indepth or Societal Perspective Taking
Level I (Premoral)
Level II (Conventional)
Level III
Age in Years
2
4
6
8
10
12
14
16
18

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DEVELOPMENTAL FRAMEWORK: SOCIAL SPHERE

Alberta Education
March, 1988

Curriculum Support Branch
5th Floor, Devonian Bldg.
11160 Jasper Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta
T5K 0L2

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Mrs. Diana Almberg	Alberta Federation of Home & School Associations
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Mr. Terry Cooke	Northern Alberta Institute of Technology
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Dr. Glen Giduk	Alberta Teachers' Association
Mrs. Janice Leonard	Conference of Alberta School Superintendents
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FOREWORD

> "The aim of education is to develop the knowledge, the skills and the positive attitudes of individuals, so that they will be self-confident, capable and committed to setting goals, making informed choices and acting in ways that will improve their own lives and the life of their community." (*Secondary Education in Alberta*, June 1985, p.7)

How children and youths think, feel and grow affects how they learn best. During the past few years, knowledge about students' learning has increased significantly. This knowledge is very important to the development of curricula and teaching methods aimed at helping students realize their potential. The challenge is to use these new insights well.

For some time, Alberta Education has been incorporating what is known about students' intellectual, social/emotional and physical growth into the curriculum. Many people have contributed ideas, examples, and research. Through the careful consideration given by professionals and parents, this work has evolved into the Alberta Education Developmental Framework. This framework will be presented in a series of documents:

1. Students' Thinking: Cognitive Domain
2. Students' Interactions: Social Sphere
3. Students' Physical Growth: Physical Dimension
4. The Emerging Student: Interrelationships among Domains

This second paper addresses growth in the social area, and describes the department's position on curriculum and the social sphere. This represents a significant initiative on the part of Alberta Education: to enable school curricula to be developed to meet and support student development in affective, interpersonal and moral domains. The department intends to incorporate this work into curricula as they are developed. At the school level, teachers and principals play a significant role in assisting students' social development.

It is intended that the department will publish the third and fourth papers in the Developmental Framework as soon as possible. The Developmental Framework delineates the developmental stages and processes through which students progress. It includes the kinds of support students need in order to learn more effectively at different stages of growth. The Framework will be used to help organize curriculum content so that it anticipates the changing needs and abilities of students.

INTRODUCTION

Schools focus on students' cognitive growth and acquisition of knowledge. It is right, perhaps, that this should be the case. But what is "the school" except a collection of individuals -- some, adults; some, children or adolescents -- who interact in pursuing the goals of cognitive growth and knowledge acquisition? If anything, we are all social beings, forever interacting with the world around us. We interact with things directly, but, more frequently, we interact with people.

This monograph focuses on the student as a social being. It looks first at the student's affective or emotional growth. Second, the monograph explores interpersonal or social growth. Finally, moral development is examined. These three domains make up the social sphere. While there are vast amounts of research in each of the domains in this sphere, only a small portion of it can be examined here. Rather, this is then a selective review that seeks to draw together the main principles of development in the social sphere. In an attempt to discuss these domains in a concise and understandable way, the research base of this work will not be cited directly. A bibliography is, however, included for those who wish to read in more detail.

The renewed commitment to the nature and needs of the learner made by Alberta Education arises from the policy statement, *Secondary Education in Alberta (1985)*, which states:

The development and implementation of the instructional program must take into account the following considerations:

- the nature and needs of the learner
- the nature and needs of a changing society
- the nature of knowledge in each subject area
- the learning environment

The Goals of Secondary Education also directly state the importance of affective, interpersonal and moral goals when they indicate that students should:

- learn about themselves and develop positive, realistic self-images;
- develop constructive relationships with others based on respect, trust, cooperation, consideration and caring as one aspect of moral and ethical behaviour.

Similarly, the Goals of Education refer to affective, interpersonal and moral development, and the Purpose of the Elementary School states explicitly the importance of providing opportunities for students to acquire the requisite social skills and develop certain desirable attitudes and commitments toward themselves, their peers and the world as they know it.

The policy on Education Program Continuity carefully considers how children learn best in the early years. Principles of child development stated in Philosophy, Goals and Program Dimensions highlight the social sphere by recognizing the significance of the self-concept and of the role of parents in children's growth.

This monograph will consider each of the three domains of social development. In each section, we will examine:

1. What the domain covers.
2. What is known about students' development in that domain, and
3. A social issue that is tied to that domain.

Finally, there is a section on the ways in which the school, or rather the people in the school, can foster students' development.

THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

The affective domain is one of emotions: it concerns how we feel. Our reactions - positive or negative - to events, objects, people or situations involve affective behaviours. Our reactions have emotional overtones.

When we meet others, we may not notice their hair or the colour of their eyes, but we know instinctively whether we are drawn to them or not. Have you ever been repelled by someone on first meeting, when you really wanted to like him or her? The experience happens without effort on your part, and is not really focused. You can (and hopefully do) control the outward expression of your emotion, but the emotion itself is not so easily controlled. Such experiences:

- are immediate, almost instantaneous
- are often automatic
- are affected by the surrounding context
- are generally holistic
- persist, even when invalidated
- are highly personal, and
- are based upon previous experiences and associations.

Anything a person does - any behaviour, that is - reflects the interaction of all domains: cognitive, affective, interpersonal, moral and physical. There are particular difficulties if we separate these domains in an effort to study the affective domain alone.

Hence, information about the affective domain is less abundant and clear than we might wish. There has been a recent renewal of interest and research in this area. Ironically though, the longest discussions are about fear, anger and aggression. More attention is given to sorrow, gloom and sadness than to laughter and humour. And who studies love?

Eric Erickson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

*** Although Erickson describes two extreme resolutions to each crisis, he recognizes that there is a wide range of solutions between these extremes and that most people probably arrive at some middle course.**

Approximate Age	Stage
Birth to 1 year	Trust vs. Mistrust Babies learn either to trust or mistrust that others will care for their basic needs, including nourishment, sucking, warmth, cleanliness, and physical contact.
1-3 years	Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt Children learn to be self-sufficient in many activities, including toileting, feeding, walking and talking, or to doubt their own abilities.
3-6 years	Initiative vs. Guilt Children want to undertake many adultlike activities, sometimes overstepping the limits set by parents and feeling guilty.
7-11	Industry vs. Inferiority Children are busy learning to be competent and productive, or feel inferior and unable to do anything well.
Adolescence	Identity vs. Role Confusion Adolescents try to figure out "Who am I?" They establish sexual, ethnic, and career identities or are confused about what future roles to play.
Adulthood	Intimacy vs. Isolation Young adults seek companionship and love with another person or become isolated from other people.
	Generativity vs. Stagnation Adults are productive, performing meaningful work and raising a family, or become stagnant and inactive.
	Integrity vs. Despair People try to make sense out of their lives, either seeing life as a meaningful whole or despairing at goals never reached and questions never answered.

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From **The Developing Person** by Kathleen Stassen Berger, 1980.

A basis for the study of affective development has been the work of Eric Erikson (see chart). His Stages of Psychological Development were a useful guide in a stable society. For example, Erikson felt that infants learned basic trust from their parents in the first one-and-a-half years of life. If their needs were not met then, the babies would tend to be mistrustful in new situations throughout life.

Today, however, students grow up in a dynamic, complex and pluralistic society. Trust/mistrust may be an issue to which individuals must return at several points in their lives, perhaps when encountering very different situations from those to which they are accustomed. Young people encounter a wide variety of experiences today. Their parents may not have had the same experiences. It may be confusing to children to try to reconcile their own

experiences with those of previous generations. The demands of change are constant and challenging, often resulting in tension, frustration and uncertainty. Such a climate is not necessarily the most conducive to healthy emotional growth.

We know from survey data that children are affected by changing times. Responding to the Canada Health Attitudes and Behaviors Survey, more than 31 percent of Alberta's Grade 4 students said they cannot sleep at night because they worry about things. (The national average was 27.5 percent.) Adolescents, too, may experience tension and pressure from high parental expectations and from economic and political uncertainty. Some adolescents get too little guidance, and this, also, can engender tension and pressure.

So, while we can use Erikson's contribution to aid our understanding of emotional growth, our framework must also reflect the more interactive nature of affective development.

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

The Infant and Toddler (0-2)

Babies are not born as blank slates, on which we can write our expectations and our hopes. When they come into the world, babies already have many different potentialities. There are individual differences among children right at birth. For example, they may be bold or shy, or somewhere in between the two. From birth, a baby may have a high activity level or may be characteristically quiet.

Even more important, though, babies are born capable of responding to other people as well as to their own inner needs (such as hunger). Babies love to look at human faces and can imitate facial expressions as early as two weeks. Very early on, they are able to get reactions from other people, most often their parents.

New babies (neonates) are sensitive to both positive and negative feelings in the people who take care of them. Babies react to caregivers' fears and anxieties. A three-month-old baby can distinguish between surprise and happiness, and by seven months a baby can tell whether an adult is happy or afraid. By nine months, infants show all the basic human emotional expressions: interest, pleasure, joy, surprise, sadness, anger, disgust, contempt and fear. Some of the more complex social emotions, such as love, also begin to appear in the relationship between parent and child. These more complex emotions are combinations and refinements of basic emotions. We infer their presence from the way babies behave with other people. Basically, infants' and children's emotional development proceeds from the simple to the more complex.

In the first two months of life, babies learn to calm themselves and to take an interest in their bright, new world. This is accomplished with the help of their parents, and babies learn to fall in love with a person (usually, but not necessarily, or only, the mother). This interaction and then dialogue between baby and parent forms a secure base for the infant. That firm attachment is a critical first step in affective development. Bonding and interaction with a parent satisfies the baby's need for familiarity and predictability. From this base, the child can explore new sensations and new things. The parents' responsiveness to their baby's temperament develops into an interaction, a dialogue. This interaction, this balance, allows parents to guide, support and encourage their child's emotional growth over the years.

The Young Child and Student

Whereas infants and toddlers (about 0-2) centre upon their own sensations and reactions, children in the preschool and primary years are largely influenced by the adults they know - their parents, grandparents, babysitters and teachers. Younger children have a less differentiated frame of reference than do school age children. They may not, for example, be able to distinguish sadness and regret.

Around the age of two, children begin to learn language. Language is a way of representing (re-presenting) other things. As children learn language, they can tell us what they are feeling. They can label feelings and talk about them.

This ability of children to label certainly makes it easier for adults to understand their reactions. However, it is important to recognize that talking about an emotion is not the same thing as the emotion itself. Telling a child that he or she doesn't feel mad, for example, won't make the anger go away. It is better to acknowledge the emotion ("You're mad, aren't you?") and then provide an acceptable outlet for the child to deal with the feeling ("Here, you can stomp in the kitchen rather than by the stereo.").

In the pre-school years, children's gestures, language and pretend play all show their growing ability to understand and differentiate a range of emotions. As they become more aware of feelings, they become more expressive, empathic and imaginative. They can draw inferences more and more about their own and others' feelings.

Children's affective responses are increasingly coloured by social expectations. They learn that while some emotions can be expressed in public, others should be reserved for private times. Thus, the link between the experience of the emotion (feeling it) and the expression of the emotion can become less direct.

Through the elementary years, children spend a lot of their time playing with their friends. As children play with each other, they observe how their peers deal with emotions in a variety of circumstances. While adults are still a major influence in these years, peers increasingly become a source of learning also.

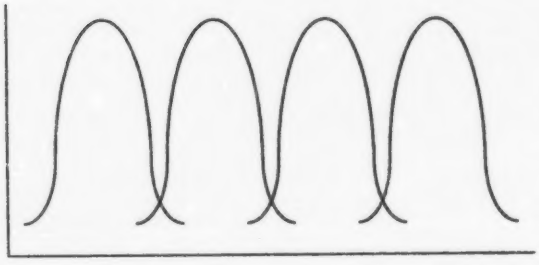
The Adolescent (about 12-15)

Early adolescence is often characterized as "Sturm und Drang" (storm and stress). This impression may have come about as a result of research that focused on students who had numerous difficulties. Teachers may form this impression from seeing their students go through many interpersonal, emotional and physical changes. In truth, however, most adolescents manage a fairly smooth transition from being a child to being an adult.

Also, what can be seen as problematic may simply be the adolescent's lack of sophistication in implementing new behaviours. While the adolescent develops new expectations, he or she has not yet practised and become accomplished in communicating them.

Adolescents are able to cope by managing one problem at a time: now exams; now permission to stay out late, now achieving membership in the current desirable peer group. They must deal with a number of issues, but these issues come into focus at different times. Also, the issues are not so interdependent that the solution of one of them requires prior solution of others. A smooth conclusion to the resolution of each issue contributes to greater and more rapidly achieved maturity. If there are multiple problems which must be dealt with simultaneously, or which are chronic, then real stress and breakdown become more likely.

Varying Focus on Issues



Age

Each curve represents a different issue or relationship, coming into focus at different times.

(adapted from Coleman, 1980)

Emotions may be volatile in early adolescence, as students undergo the numerous physical and social changes accompanying puberty. As they progress through adolescence, students can develop the ability to reflect upon and analyze their emotions. They become more involved with ideals, values and life plans. In times of economic uncertainty, they may express a realistic fear and anxiety about their futures. Because emotional control based on reflection is not perfected at this age, early adolescents can be surprising in the inconsistency of their emotional responses. At one moment they can act in an adult manner, and the next revert to relatively childish behaviours. In a sense, they are still practising to be adults. The adult behaviours are not yet automatic or polished.

THE SCHOOL AS CONTEXT

The school is a social institution. As such, every school has a characteristic ethos or atmosphere about it, which could be called its culture. Some schools seem strict, some easygoing. Other schools seem orderly and businesslike, while still others have a feeling of warmth, caring and high expectation. Successful schools promote good behaviour and good achievement by students.

What are the characteristics of successful schools? Successful schools believe in their students. They expect their students to do well and they set high standards. Expectations are high, firm and fair. These schools have a pleasant and comfortable environment. For example, students are free to use the building during breaks and lunches, can use a telephone and have available to them hot or cold drinks. Students are best able to take some risks - to extend their learning - in an atmosphere of support and caring.

Teachers model behaviour for students. Where teachers are polite and respectful of students' dignity, students will respond positively. Students can develop positive attitudes through observation of teachers as models. Teachers also model the importance of school work by beginning lessons promptly, and by being efficient in classroom procedures. Positive modelling by teachers includes willingness to talk to students whenever there is a need.

In successful schools, teachers praise students and students are involved in the school. Students have responsibilities to discharge: they participate in student government and take care of their own school materials. Students are rewarded for their academic achievements, as well as for athletic, artistic and community achievements. Elementary schools develop students' feelings of pride and competency in many small but significant ways, such as displaying artwork in school hallways at the children's height. At any level, pictures of students involved in positive behaviours can be influential.

The development of the affective domain can be carried through curricular means as well as through the social

relations within the school. Curricula frequently include affective objectives. These often begin with the word "appreciate". Sometimes it is difficult to visualize what specific behaviours would show that the students have attained the objective. In this regard, standard taxonomies of educational objectives can be useful guides for clarifying what students are meant to do or to feel.

The Junior High Health and Personal Life Skills course (1986 edition) provides some excellent examples of clear objectives focussed on specific affective learnings. One example from Grade 8 is in Theme I: Self-Awareness and Acceptance, Sub-theme B: Feelings:

GENERAL OBJECTIVE

1. Recognizing the concepts of feelings and their management.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The Student

1. Understands that variations in moods are natural.
2. Recognizes that there may be many ways of managing feelings in self and others.
3. Identifies favorable and unfavorable effects of emotions.

Teaching a given content will not automatically achieve a given affective goal. For example, teaching Shakespearean plays has not uniformly produced generations of lovers of Shakespearean drama. While children can repeat the knowledge objective that milk is beneficial, they still may not like it.

On a more specific level, we can acknowledge that students have emotions as an integral part of their being by:

- accepting emotions as they occur in day-to-day classroom life
- setting aside time for talking, preferably when emotions are not high
- encouraging students to express their opinions and feelings
- encouraging questions and answering them fully
- listening actively (listening to really understand what the other person is saying and demonstrating this by repeating the gist of their words back to them). Practising and teaching this skill
- giving emotions a place in the curriculum. Encouraging students to recognize their own and other individuals' emotional responses
- examining emotional responses from different frames of reference
- modelling appropriate emotional responses to stressful situations. talking to students about your reactions at the time, or soon after
- guiding students' reflections on their own and others' responses

FOCUS ON AN ISSUE: STUDENTS AND STRESS

Today, we more often see students under stress from a variety of sources. It is important to understand the nature of stress and its effects on students because overly stressed students do not learn at optimal levels. Until stress is reduced or students learn to manage stress more effectively, our goals for students will be more difficult to reach.

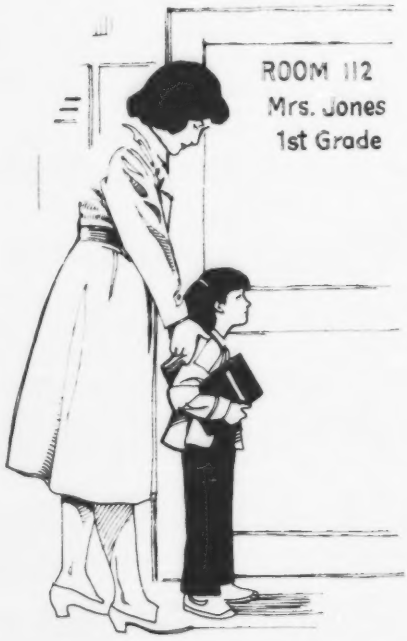
Stress occurs when there is pressure or force on a person, be it a physical, mental or emotional pressure. Initially, a person uses up "clock energy" to deal with stress. This is our daily energy, replenished through adequate care, food and rest. Early symptoms of stress show up here in tiredness, loss of appetite and lowered efficiency. A student may be anxious or easily angered.

If a person is stressed beyond the limits of daily energy to cope, he or she draws on "calendar energy". Calendar energy is the energy used for growth and development in its broadest sense. So, long term or chronic stress can affect growth and development. Psychosomatic illness may result.

Stress can be caused by positive as well as negative events. We all need some stress in our lives to challenge us. However, too much stress for an individual has negative effects. There are a number of life events which are potentially stressful for students. Taking a test is stressful; so is facing a death in the family.

Two factors in particular determine whether a student can cope constructively. The first factor is simply the number of stresses the student must face. The more stresses, the more difficult it is to cope. Stresses have an interactive effect; that is, two stressors are four times as hard to deal with as one stressor would be by itself.

A second factor is the student's understanding of the event. This means that the student's previous experiences, coping skills and cognitive level must be taken into account. For example, a major event in students' lives is the very first day of school. It is helpful to first grade students if parents talk through the whole experience with their children ahead of time. It may take several talks. The school can be described, as can the procedures and routines. It can be helpful if parents have talked with the teacher and can describe things first-hand. Perhaps walking the route to be taken or simulating the bus ride would be useful. Knowing ahead of time where the bathroom is can diffuse anxiety. The more the student understands, the easier the day will be for him or her. If the child must later change schools, this first school day can be an example for him or her of what to expect.



Stress and coping are not events; in fact they are reactions. These reactions are transitional processes. The processes may encompass both positive and negative aspects at the same time. A student moving to a new neighbourhood may experience anticipatory excitement and anxiety before the move. There are short-term adjustments to be made as well as long-term coping skills to develop. Skills to develop new friendships and to deal with the sense of loss of old friendships are two types of these long-term coping skills.

To deal with immediate stress more effectively students need opportunities to learn to:

- see the world from more positive viewpoints
- become aware of how they personally contribute to and enhance their own lives
- learn skills for understanding themselves
- learn strategies for coping with stressful situations (such as tests)
- improve their ability to relate to and support others
- acquire good communication and decision-making skills
- develop a supportive network drawn from family, friends and classmates
- take and give support
- understand stress and see the opportunity for growth it can provide.

We cannot expect childen to cope with all stresses by themselves. As adults, we need to be alert to children who suffer from chronic stress and be prepared to intervene in order to reduce it.

INTERPERSONAL DOMAIN

Children learn about their environments directly, through interaction with things in the physical world. To learn about people, though, children must interact with people. What we know of our social environment and ourselves we learn through our relationships with people, directly or indirectly. Of course, people also help us with our understandings of the physical world. So it is difficult to exaggerate the role that other people play in determining what we know about the world, and how we come to know it.

The interpersonal domain really includes five areas of skills:

1. Expressing feelings.
2. Dealing with tension in oneself and in social interactions.
3. Being empathic.
4. Modifying one's own behaviour.
5. Managing social interactions.

The need for these skills increases as our society becomes more pluralistic and as our world becomes more interdependent. Each person's well-being depends on the goodwill and actions of others. These other people may speak another language, or come from another culture. An in-house survey by a major corporation found that the main reason workers were fired was their inability to get along with their supervisors or co-workers. They could do their jobs, but they could not get along with people.

We rarely give direct instruction in knowing people and interacting effectively with them. In many endeavours in schooling, however, these abilities are recognized and valued by-products. Much of what happens in the learning environment in schools demonstrates and develops interpersonal skills. The challenge is to demonstrate and promote productive rather than maladaptive interpersonal skills.

INTERPERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

The Infant and Young Child

As with emotional growth, human babies are biologically equipped for social interaction. They begin life engaged skillfully in interpersonal relationships. For example, infants can establish and maintain optimal eye contact. At only seven days old, they can tell their own mother from others on the basis of scent. They prefer human voices to other sounds and can turn their heads toward the speaker. By the age of twelve months, babies sense and adopt the feeling states of the person who cares for them.

Of course, interpersonal competence is not a static list of skills. The behaviour a three-month-old baby exhibits is a totally mature and fully accomplished three-month-old baby behaviour. The same is true at two years, ten years, or any age. A person's interpersonal competence warrants comparison with the way a person of similar age and circumstances behaves. We need to develop the ability to see ourselves as acting "with" rather than "on" the child, to respect the child's competency.

The Student

Reflecting this view of successive levels of maturity, interpersonal development takes place in the interaction of the child

- with the social environment
- in particular situations
- with his or her parents
- with his or her teachers
- with his or her friends
- with his or her peers.

A variety of interpersonal skills have been identified by different researchers, but there is no single, agreed upon and defined set of interpersonal skills currently available. One example of a list of skills that students need to be popular with their peers is given below. Of course, being popular is tremendously important to students of all ages.

Social Compentencies Associated with Popularity

Skill/Attribute	Description
Relevance	Ability to "read" a social situation and adapt behaviour accordingly
Responsiveness	Capacity to be receptive to and reinforcing of the social initiatives of others
Timing and staging	Capacity to pace relationships; knowing what and when to do or say things
Indirect approaches	Awareness that relationships and interactions are often initiated and sustained by indirect means
Feedback cues	Sensitivity to negative and positive social feedback while relating
Resolution of conflict	Aptitude for settling disagreement without aggression or violence (verbal or physical)
Verbal pragmatic	Understanding and effective use of strategies language in social contexts
Social memory	Recall and use of prior interactional experience
Social prediction	Propensity to foresee the social consequences of one's actions and/or words
Awareness of image	Tendency to present oneself to peers in such a way as to be socially acceptable
Affective matching	Ability to discern and reinforce the current feelings of a peer
Recuperative strategies	Ability to compensage for social errors

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Research has not really explored the sequence in which interpersonal skills develop. Instead it has examined how children and adolescents view relationships. Research has examined the child's ability to understand the motives, feelings and intentions of another person.

In this respect, maturity is considered the overcoming of egocentrism.

To understand another person's point of view might be like asking these five questions:

What is the other person seeing?
What is the other person feeling?
What is the other person thinking?
What is the other person intending?
What is the other person like?

Selman has presented a model of interpersonal understanding which considers how students answer these questions. The student progresses through five stages (see chart and appendix).

In this view, the student moves out from the self in developing a view of interpersonal relations. This is a developing ability to reach beyond oneself and see the world from another's viewpoint. This understanding requires two abilities:

1. To be sensitive to interpersonal interaction - **context dependent.**
2. To be able to step back, suspend judgment and analyze those interactions - **context independent.**

Selman's Five Stages

Nature of Perspective Taking	Characteristics of the Child	Age Range
Egocentric Undifferentiated	Unable to see that another perspective may exist besides his or her own.	3 to 6
Subjective	Realizes other people have their own perspectives and so may interpret the same situation differently.	5 to 9
Self-reflective thinking	Realizes others think about his/her thinking. Can reflect on his/her own behaviour and motivation.	7 to 12
Mutual or third person	Able to see all parties from a third person perspective.	10 to 15
Indepth or societal	Aware of relativity of perspectives held by themselves and by social groups. Most of us do not master this stage completely.	Adolescence through Adulthood

There are times when context dependency is needed, when it is best to react without analysis. At other times, we need to be detached from the context, to pick out the salient features. Both of these skills are essential. Children develop skills in both areas over time but, of course, also differ from one another in the development of these two abilities.

There has been a tendency to emphasize the development of a sense of self as separating oneself from others. However, all growth occurs within the context of our relations with others - parents, relatives, teachers, friends, peers - so it seems logical to see development also in the growth of relationships. In this sense, the criteria for maturity are seen as the abilities to manage relationships and to think creatively about them.

Relationships grow through our being sensitive to one another, through our learning about one another. We need to be able to feel as others do - to have empathy. Attending and responding to what happens in a relationship is also part of this. Students are always involved in interpersonal interaction, as are we all. We must all be comfortable both in moving close to and at times away from others. All interactions revolve around these capacities for closeness and for distance as well as the need not to feel overwhelmed, overly stressed, in either case.

THE SCHOOL AS CONTEXT

Something we frequently overlook about schools is that they are a social phenomenon. There is not a teacher student dyad; each teacher has both an individual relationship with each student and various relationships with groups of students. Students have relationships among themselves as well as with teachers. A class is a complex social system in and of itself.

The social relations in the classroom are instrumental to instructional success (or lack of success). Teachers and students must develop "working agreements" to help tasks flow smoothly and to understand the nature of the instructional tasks. It is much simpler to manage social relations in clinical or remedial settings, where there are fewer people involved, than it is in classroom settings where there can be as many as forty people. This is often an unrecognized factor when people talk about "what teachers should do".

The school is an interpersonally complex context. Furthermore, the interpersonal skills and knowledge are rarely communicated explicitly. Classroom life differs from home life, and each classroom differs from each other one. Each teacher sets up his or her own expectations and classroom procedures. Again, these "working agreements" are usually set up indirectly and the student must work through inference, figuring out the implicit context of the classroom. This type of understanding, which is not openly expressed, is called tacit knowledge. We are only vaguely aware of tacit knowledge, if at all, and often acquire it through observing and imitating model behaviours, as if by osmosis.

It is just this tacit nature of interpersonal skills and learnings which makes them difficult to teach - or even to identify. We sometimes see this lack of tacit knowledge only when a student exhibits a skill that is wrong for that situation. For example, a student might suggest to the class that everyone work quietly so as to be done for the weekend. Now suppose this is a junior high class on a lazy Friday afternoon, with a concert coming that evening. That student may have ingratiated himself or herself with the teacher, but has actively harmed his or her standing with classmates. Teachers are often at a loss to know what skills to teach a student such as this. The classroom is at least a controlled arena for social interaction.

This is not true of the playground or mall hangout. Through all our actions, we are engaged in and implicitly teaching interpersonal skills.

Some students are often described as lacking in social skills. It is clear that this contributes to their lack of success in school and with their peers. However, it is not so much that these students fail to do what they should. Rather, it is that they actively do what they should not. Children who lack school success often work twice as hard as do the typical, successful middle class students to get and keep the teacher's attention. Unfortunately, they use strategies that teachers find inappropriate. Some children learn to understand, to interpret and to follow the mediation supplied by teachers. Other children understand other modes of mediation, and so miss what the teacher supplies. (Mediated learning is described on page 27.)

It is important to note that these socially maladapted students do not lack either skills or social involvement. Rather, they use the wrong skills, or maladaptive skills, for that particular context. The teacher can serve as a bridge builder for these students, so that they can learn skills others see as more appropriate to that context. Teachers can help students learn which skills to use in differing contexts.

Given the complexity and tacit nature of classroom interpersonal interaction, what is practical for teachers to do? In directly teaching interpersonal skills, teachers can:

1. Be as concrete as possible.
2. Emphasize use of the particular skill, such as active listening.
3. Link the information supplied with appropriate actions and behaviours (the teacher as "bridge builder").
4. Provide many opportunities for practise; and
5. Arrange instructional strategies so that they correspond with the way the learner organizes knowledge (not with the way an experienced, adult expert organizes it).

FOCUS ON AN ISSUE: THE INFLUENCE OF PEERS

It is clear that children learn things from peers. Peers help children to learn in many domains: cognitive, emotional and moral as well as interpersonal. Therefore, it is important that we understand the benefits as well as occasional disadvantages of peer interaction.

Even young preschool children play with peers. When they know the other children well, very young children will play with, rather than just beside, others. In fact, at every age after infancy, children typically spend a great deal of time with other children their age. Because the children are similar in age, they are frequently also similar in skills, experiences, interests and status.

Children, like adults, need to be able to find and keep friends. Younger children like to share toys or play activities with friends. As children grow older, they move to sharing thoughts and feelings. Loyalty becomes an important quality in friends. As students grow older, they

recognize the interdependence of friends, and the mutual help friends can provide.

From an early age on, children in our society see a difference between peers and adults. Usually, they expect to play with peers, but to get help from adults. As children grow older, they develop and expand their skills in peer interactions, generally becoming more positive and cooperative. Children learn techniques for gaining access to other children's games. They also develop techniques to exclude some children who would like to join their game

By as early as x years old, a child who has not acquired minimal interpersonal competence is at risk. That child is more likely to be a school drop-out, and to have difficulties later in life.

As students move through the primary school years, their interpersonal skills become more sophisticated. Children become increasingly able to use different skills in different settings, with different people or for different tasks.

As adolescence blooms, peers are often thought of as having an unhappy influence. The influence of friends becomes the issue of peer pressure. Parents or teachers often refer to peer pressure as though it were a single force -- a group of teenagers pressuring a particular student to do something unhealthy, such as smoke.

However, teenagers experience pressures from many sources, such as parents, peers, media, and themselves. Actually, peer pressures are largely self-generated; that is, it is the way the student perceives the situation that affects the pressure that the student feels. If a girl believes that others think she's unattractive, then she may feel a lot of pressure to dress well and use makeup skillfully.

Peer pressure, then, is really a complex mix of indirect pressures. In a group of peers, teenagers want to see themselves in a number of ways. For example, they may want to appear independent, to gain recognition, to appear mature or grown-up, or to appear to be having fun.

The pressure students feel to be different, an individual, is the pressure to appear independent. Students rebel on occasion. Schools can inadvertently play to this pressure and to the adolescent desire for recognition when students are singled out for rebellious behaviour. They may be undergoing punishment, but that punishment may be worth it if peer recognition is the result.

The pressure that students feel, to appear grown-up and to be enjoying themselves, can also lead them to negative behaviours. Students want to appear older because being older is associated with various privileges. Adolescents may not focus on the responsibilities associated with various privileges.

Peers are not the sole source of pressure for students to appear mature. Schools can also foster this situation by encouraging students to "act like adults", and parental pressure to act responsibly can be inappropriately high for some children.

Peer pressures play across a background of other influences on teenagers. Parents and the media can also be identified as having significant influence and even pressure. In general, though, students agree with their parents on fundamental moral principles. The conflicts come on socially trivial issues (such as taste in music). If both parents and peers approve of something, it is likely the student will approve of it also. If either one of parents or peers approve of something, the student's approval of it will rise moderately, but not to the extent that it does if both groups approve of it.

In helping students handle peer pressure, we must assist them with some general abilities. Students must gain sufficient reflective awareness to recognize the types of pressures and their sources. It is helpful to have the independence to be critical of peer expectations. If peer pressures are largely self-generated, then they can be self-managed. Of course, students also need sufficient accurate knowledge to develop an adequate idea of the risks and payoffs of a situation. Knowledge alone is not enough, but it is a necessary component in counteracting social pressure. Students' independence must be nurtured by adults' attitudes and values.

The skills, knowledge and reflective awareness required to manage peer pressures are difficult. Reflective awareness is a higher order thinking skill. Consider how many adults succumb to peer pressures in some situations. We must nurture these skills in students; they do not develop by happenstance.

THE MORAL DOMAIN

Perhaps because it is so important how children develop (and the way they develop), a moral sense is the subject of considerable debate. Developing a moral sense is becoming a good person, whether morality is taught in the home, the school or a religious institution. As adults, we want all kinds of things for children: we may want them to be smart, artistic and/or popular.

> But they are no less persons, no less human, if they do not possess these qualities. It's a different matter, however, if they are not good and decent people. In that case, they do not stand tall as persons. Their humanity is diminished.
>
> Lickona, 1983.

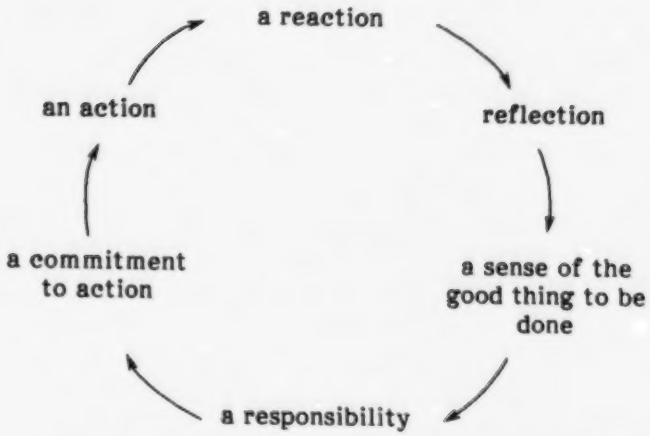
Good people are not simply "nice" people. They are not soft-headed, teary-eyed or pushovers to the machinations of others. It has been said that we "catch morals like colds". While it is true that we learn moral behaviour through observing others act morally, moral education is more than learning by osmosis. We can - and do - affect moral development in our interactions with children. This is because we become role models and mediators of morality. When our actions do not match what we say, children detect the incongruity. It may be difficult to teach our children to respect rules if, for the sake of convenience, we park in a space reserved for the handicapped, or if we run a yellow light or stop sign.

It is useful to distinguish between what is proper and what is moral. Children can make this distinction even as early as three years of age. Shared conventions determine what is proper. Members of a social system, people in a school or in a society, agree on a set of conventions. These are important, but they are also arbitrary. They are not inherently right or wrong, and can change over time or place. For example, wearing blue jeans in school can be allowed or prohibited. In some schools, it is proper to wear school uniforms, in others, casual clothing is permitted. (See chart for stages of development in thinking about conventions.)

In contrast, what is moral behaviour is determined by factors intrinsic to the actions themselves. Moral behaviour is inherent in social relationships. It is not moral to harm others, to violate others' rights or, on an everyday basis, to be deliberately inconsiderate. Moral prescriptions are universal and unchangeable. Moral transgressions are wrong, and must be taken very seriously. So, for example, a young child will see hitting and stealing as wrong. For an adult, though, hitting an attacker in self-defense may be morally defensible. Adults are more able to understand the impact and limitations of context upon moral considerations. They can come to understand which moral principles are fundamental, and how decisions are affected by them.

The moral domain is really an interaction of domains: it is the intersection of the emotional and interpersonal domains with the cognitive domain, manifested through actions.

The moral domain can be best characterized as a cycle of events:



This cycle repeats itself many times, and any one action is likely to be consistent with previous actions and beliefs.

Morality involves more than a perception that the problem requires a moral decision. It involves more than knowing a person can be effective in taking action on an issue. Morality includes the responsibility of the person to take a personal action or to avoid incorrect action. It is not enough to leave it to others. Individuals such as Mahatma Gandhi and Mother Theresa have demonstrated this through their selfless dedication, but on an everyday level, so does the teacher who stays late to help a student or who gives up personal time for extra curricular activities with students. A student exhibits moral behaviour when he or she takes time to study with another student who needs the help.

Much of the research in moral development or ethics has focused on one aspect of morality - moral reasoning. The most widely acknowledged theorist in moral reasoning is Lawrence Kohlberg. He proposed a sequence of three levels, each divided into two stages (see chart). Kohlberg's levels represent a transition from self interest to social interest. A person may also make another transition, from considering the immediate society as it is, to considering wider social principles. For Kohlberg, the central moral principle is justice.

Kohlberg's stages of moral reasoning cover thinking about morality rather than actually acting morally. As we all recognize, there can be a gap between what people believe (or say they believe) and what they actually do. We know we should help others, but how often are we "too busy?" It may be, too, that Kohlberg's sequence is not reflective of all cultures. It is clear that Kohlberg's sequence, developed from data about males, does not entirely reflect everyone's experiences.

Women, for instance, while they understand and use the principle of justice, tend to prefer the principle of caring. That is, women see moral issues in terms of care and responsibility in relationships. Women and girls seek to achieve and maintain harmonious relationships while meting out justice.

In examining the development of morality, we have talked about moral reasoning. The development of moral action is a more complex issue. Some of the ways in which the issue is accomplished are dealt with in the section on the classroom as context.

MORAL DEVELOPMENT

The Young Child and Student

Since moral development is in part an interaction among affective, interpersonal and cognitive domains, its early development rests to some extent on the child's development in those domains. Morality involves more than the implicit learning of social rules and conventions. It is not automatic.

Young children are present-bound. They are not fully aware that what is happening now can affect their lives later. Hence, they have little idea of the future implications of any choice. They may not be aware of alternative ways of dealing with a problem because they cannot envision alternative courses of action. It is too much to ask a young

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

Level 1	Pre-moral	
	Stage 1	Obeys rules in order to avoid punishment.
	Stage 2	Conforms to obtain rewards, to have favours returned.
Level II	Morality of Conventional Role Conformity	
	Stage 3	Conforms to avoid disapproval/dislike by others.
	Stage 4	Conforms to avoid censure by legitimate authorities, with resultant guilt.
Level III	Morality of Self-Accepted Moral Principles	
	Stage 5	Conforms to maintain the respect of the impartial spectator judging in terms of community welfare.
	Stage 6	Conforms to avoid self-condemnation; defines the principles by which agreements will be most just.

child to keep in mind a situation, alternative courses of action, and the various consequences of those courses of action. In fact, their orientation to the here and now may prevent their imagining even one future consequence of some present course of action. Children can, however, associate what they have done with what happened, and then with how they felt about it. This memory of action, consequence and feeling can help them develop their thinking.

As with cognitive development, the adequate development of complex emotions such as empathy and an ability to reflect on social interactions are important. Otherwise, a child may not recognize a problem in morality. Action without empathy or reflection may not lead to a satisfying outcome. A very young child may not recognize that refusing to allow another child to join a game may be a hurtful act. Once children have hurt others and been hurt by others, they have concrete experience with real consequences. After this, they can be brought to reflection, perhaps through discussion. As they grow older, this reflective capacity can allow them to see and deal with morality more independently, in a more reasoned way.

According to Kohlberg, children under nine years of age characteristically do not understand society's rules and expectations. They consider only their own personal interest and advantage. This is the pre-conventional level. Very young

children obey in order to avoid punishment. For example, they avoid stealing in order to avoid punishment. Later, one is nice to others so that they'll return the favour. A child might invite others to his birthday party so that he'll be invited to their upcoming parties.

For girls, Carol Gilligan's work suggests additional directions in females' moral developments. The sequence in Gilligan's ethic of care begins with an initial focus on caring for the self to ensure survival. This may be similar to Kohlberg's initial stage, viewed from a different perspective, or through a different principle.

The Adolescent and Adult

The majority of adolescents and adults are found to be at the conventional level on Kohlberg's scale. Here, people are preoccupied with maintaining the expectations of the social group. Good behaviour - being a good boy or a good girl - wins praise. Students obey the law because it is the law and the social consensus. People should avoid stealing to keep order in society.

In Gilligan's view, women develop a new understanding of the connection between themselves and others. This is seen as the concept of responsibility. It is good to care for others, particularly those who are dependent. For example, a girl may feel responsible for a peer who is less popular.

A minority of people move to the post-conventional level on Kohlberg's scale. At this level, people begin to reason from universal moral principles. They become autonomous in their reasoning; that is, instead of relying on the general consensus of others, they think through dilemmas independently. In this stage, a person would consider how another person's rights would be violated in a theft.

In Gilligan's sequence, the caring for others at the expense of caring for oneself creates difficulties. This is resolved through women's understanding that care becomes a self-chosen principle. A woman might take time for herself, for example, so that she can be more relaxed around her children and husband.

It is unlikely that these stages operate totally in isolation in men and women. Certainly, women understand and use principles of justice and men understand and use an ethic of caring. It may help to clarify an issue, however, if one considers which principle is central to an individual when dealing with a specific situation.

In this section, we have dealt with two theorists. It is possible that diverse cultural groups deal with various ethical principles in their understanding of morality. It is useful to recall again that morality does not begin and end with moral reasoning. Morality must include in its scope moral behaviour.

THE CLASSROOM AS CONTEXT

There are at least two distinctions which it may be useful to keep in mind as we consider moral development in the

Major Changes in Social-Conventional Concepts
(Nucci)

Approximate Ages	
6 - 7	1. Convention as descriptive of social uniformity.Convention viewed as descriptive of uniformities in behavior. Convention is not conceived of structure or function of social interaction. Conventional uniformities are descriptive of what is assumed to exist. Convention maintained to avoid violation of empirical uniformities.
8 - 9	2. Negation of convention as descriptive social uniformity. Empirical uniformity not a sufficient basis for maintaining conventions. Conventional acts regarded as arbitrary. Convention is not conceived as part of structure or function of social interaction.
10 - 11	3. Convention as affirmation of rule system; early concrete conception of social system. Convention seen as arbitrary and changeable. Adherence to convention based on concrete rules and authoritative expectations. Conception of conventional acts not coordinated with conception of rule.
12 - 13	4. Negation of convention as part of rule system. Convention now seen as arbitrary and changeable regardless of rules. Evaluation of rule pertaining to conventional act is coordinated with evaluation of the act. Conventions are "nothing but" social expectations.
14 - 16.	5 Convention as mediated by social system. The emergence of systematic concepts of social structure. Convention as normative regulation in system with uniformity, fixed roles, and static hierarchical organization.
17 - 18	6. Negation of convention as societal standards. Convention regarded as codified societal standards. Uniformity in convention is not considered the function of maintaining social system. Conventions are "nothing but" societal standards that exist through habitual use.
18 - 25	7. Convention as coordinated social interactions. Conventions as uniformities that are functional in coordinating social interactions. Shared knowledge, in the form of conventions, among members of social groups facilitate interaction and operation of the system.

school. The first is the distinction between those issues that are matters of convention and those that deal with morals. It is important to respond to students in coordination with the appropriate area, whether of conventions or of morals.

Junior high students exhibiting disruptive behaviour may see thearbitrariness of social conventions and choose to view these conventions negatively. When they move to affirming the social system of conventions, they become less disruptive in their behaviour. In

assisting disruptive students, it may be useful to focus on the need for a system of shared conventions, despite their arbitrariness. It would not be helpful to "moralize" all transgressions, equating dress code violations with stealing or bullying others.

Teachers intuitively understand the difference between moral and conventional issues. They will often tend to respond to students' transgressions differentially, depending on whether the act was a transgression of morals or conventions. For example, to stop one child hitting another, the teacher will refer to the pain of the second child (morality). A typical teacher response would be "How would you feel if he hit you?" A child speaking far too loudly may be referred however to the classroom rule, "Use your inside (i.e. low) voice." Here, the teacher is dealing with conventions.

It may be a useful distinction for teachers to keep in mind that students can see different moral principles as paramount in different situations. For example, girls may not necessarily respond on the basis of fairness or justice as a central moral principle. They may also attempt to maintain social relationships, seeing that as the central issue in a discussion over behaviour in a classroom.

An example of this kind of conflict occurred in one school. The penalty for a rule infraction was to be denied permission to attend the subsequent school dance. While the students went along with this during the year, the girls banned from the last dance of the year complained long and loudly. The principal had difficulty understanding these sudden complaints. Then he saw that he had neglected to take into account that the last dance of the year was a very special occasion for the students. The girls saw themselves as being cut off from their friends (and beaux). These girls focused on the punishment as a major one, based on the principle of caring for others. The principal had seen the punishment as a minor one, based on the principles of justice. Hence the girls -- but not the principal -- saw the punishment as overly severe for the infraction.

Historically, the basic approach to moral education was twofold. First, desirable ideals, attitudes, values and behaviours were identified. These were then instilled in students through exhortation and example. Four teaching strategies are characteristic of this type of education:

1. Precepts: the use of a saying or proverb to promote a value or behaviour, such as "a penny saved is a penny earned" for thrift.

2. Exemplars: the use of stories or examples demonstrating the desirable behaviours. For example, Wayne Gretzky's work and actions on behalf of the mentally handicapped promote social responsibility.

3. Ritual: the repeated use of a ceremony or rite, such as saluting the flag to promote patriotism.

4. Environmentalism: recreating the events in miniature so that students can experience them within the school setting. An example of this is the use of student government as a means of encouraging later participation in civic life, as an adult.

This approach works very well in a stable society. In a pluralistic society undergoing change, students also require an ability to reflect upon conflicting values, and a method of analysis for resolving such conflicts. While these four techniques can and should still be used, they are not sufficient by themselves.

The school can further assist students in developing a sound moral sense in at least two ways. First, students learn through observing moral adult behaviour. Teachers, like parents and adults in the community, serve as models for students. As with the teaching of interpersonal skills, much moral behaviour is learned through observing the moral actions of others.

The second way that schools can assist students is in helping them interpret and evaluate the competing moral positions presented to them. This can and should be done through the vehicle of the regular curriculum in all classes. It is not enough to leave this to the Grade 8 Ethics course; it is the responsibility of all teachers. In class exercises, students can explore how specific values are demonstrated by specific behaviours. The following guidelines are helpful in this regard:

- Students move to higher levels of social and moral reasoning when they are allowed to interact with their peers in considering social and moral issues that are real to them - those they face in their own experience (as opposed to problems adults think important).

- Opportunities for open discussion are essential. Such use of discussion acknowledges that moral development is not simply a process of learning society's rules and values but a gradual process in which students actively transform their understanding of morality through reflection and construction. In this regard, the discussion of dilemmas and the choices people must make are useful.

- Classroom management practices and rules which are known, upheld, evenly applied, moderate in nature and negotiable, all contribute to students' moral development. Cooperative goal structures and learning techniques promote both moral and academic growth.

- Responding to the harmful or unjust effects/consequences of a moral transgression is more effective than reference to broken rules or unfulfilled social conventions for issues in the moral arena.

- If students seem inadequate as moral agents, it may be that adults need to ensure that opportunities to take on moral responsibility come their way.

FOCUS ON AN ISSUE: STEREOTYPING

In their classes, teachers must deal with a wide variety of students. They try to deal equitably with all students, just as we wish society to treat each one of us equitably. Sometimes, however, equitable treatment is impeded by stereotyping. The prejudice entailed in stereotyping reflects on the moral domain.

A stereotype is a kind of oversimplified mental picture of a certain person or group of people, usually based on observable characteristics such as race, ethnic background, religion or sex.

Children develop stereotypes in early childhood, even as young as two years old. Until they form stereotypes, children will play together amicably.

Stereotypes are passed on not only by parents and teachers, but also by the media, children's books and peer interactions. All the contextual influences on situations, subtle as they are, can contribute to stereotyped views of groups of people. Jokes are one example of a subtle influence in a given context.

We have the best understanding of how stereotypes of sex roles develop. Our understanding of the development of other types of stereotyping in children is less clear.

During the elementary school years, boys and girls tend to be positive about their own sex and negative about the opposite sex. They give higher ratings to boys who do well in mathematics and girls who do well in reading. Boys who are good readers and girls who do well in mathematics are not rated as highly by their peers.

Of course, parents have a lot of influence on their children. Where parents' behaviour is less stereotypical, children's will be less so as well. In particular, girls' interests, activities and aspirations are more balanced between the typically masculine and feminine if their mothers are career oriented or employed outside the home.

Some people argue that elementary schools are more suited to girls than to boys. In general, girls like elementary school more than do boys, whose active natures can be seen as disruptive. In the

elementary years girls achieve well, are praised more for on-task behaviour and receive much less attention for being disruptive.

Although girls are reprimanded less frequently than boys, the negative feedback they get pertains to the accuracy and the intellectual quality of their work. Boys are told they are not working hard enough. Thus, boys learn that achievement comes through greater effort. Girls learn to attribute school failure to lack of ability. The implications of this are far reaching. Boys learn to try harder or discount criticism in the face of failure. Girls learn to doubt themselves, and to give up trying. By senior high school, girls learn to avoid "hard" courses in order to avoid failing.

Early adolescence brings dramatic physical changes. Where children in the upper elementary years are more flexible in their view of sex roles, early adolescents become rather inflexible in playing out sex roles. Most fourteen year olds, for example, recognize that male/female role differences are largely

socially defined. These same fourteen year olds, though, will claim that students must conform to sex role stereotypes. By the beginning of late adolescence (about the age of seventeen), students have again developed a greater flexibility toward sex roles and identities.

A changing society demands increasing flexibility. It is advantageous to possess a wide range of abilities, skills, interests and behaviours. Students at the ages of 8, 12, and 17 or 18 emphasize the ability of individuals to act according to choice and individual self-interest rather than according to sex role conformity. These age levels may be critical in expanding all students' range of options. All too often, stereotypes narrow options.

In a similar way, stereotypes of race, ethnic group, religion or physical characteristics can limit individuals' potentials. The mediation that forms children's attitudes can be very subtle. We may not consciously intend to create the attitudes we do in children, but through our modelling, framing and verbal mediation we have very definite effects.

EDUCATING FOR AFFECTIVE, INTERPERSONAL AND MORAL GROWTH

There are four major means of facilitating students' affective, interpersonal and moral growth:

1. Modelling
2. Mediated learning
3. Didactic instruction (both direct and indirect)
4. Experiential learning

1. Modelling

Adults serve as models or personal examples to children and students. Through observation of the consistency of what adults say and do, students imitate and thereby implicitly learn how to deal with emotions, other people and moral issues.

For models, students will look to those who support and control them: parents, peers, older students, teachers and other adults. Those who seem to be competent, or of high status, are more powerful models, particularly if these people have shown an interest in the student. If many models exhibit a certain behaviour, and are rewarded for it, then that behaviour is more likely to be modelled. Finally, if the students see the models as people like themselves, and if the behaviour is characteristic of the group the students belong to, then the students are more likely to exhibit that kind of behaviour. In regard to these characteristics, teachers can and do make very effective models for students.

Positive models project feelings that individuals would like to experience. This is one way attitudes are formed.

2. Mediated Learning

Besides learning directly through interaction and from unconscious modelling, students learn through the mediation supplied by parents or peers, other adults and more knowledgeable or skillful peers. Mediation, in this sense, refers to what is said or deliberately shown. It is the adult's or peer's interpretation of the physical or social context for the student. This person intentionally selects, frames, organizes and interprets events, objects and other students' responses for the student.

By the age of three or sooner, children ask lots of questions. They ask for the meanings of words or why someone did something. They ask for descriptions of unfamiliar things or why one act is right and another is wrong. The ways that parents and teachers respond to these questions affect how children learn, and their attitudes toward learning. These responses affect how children ask and answer questions; in fact, they affect whether they keep on asking questions at all.

An example of different ways a parent can mediate in a situation can be shown in the following incident. An eight-year-old girl managed to retrieve coins from a piggy bank through the slot where coins are normally fed into the bank. Her father asked her how she managed to get the coins out, as the bank was tricky to open. The girl replied that when she could not open the bank, she remembered that the coins went into the slot, and so must be able to come out through that same slot.

Now, what comment will the father make? Will he say that she figured that out very well, because she demonstrated reversibility of operations (what goes in must come out)? Will he tell her to ask for help next time to get the money out the "right" way? Will he berate her for not leaving the money in the bank? Will he explain why the money needs to be saved for a while longer? With either of the first two comments, the father would make this a cognitive issue, of two very different sorts. The third and fourth comments would make this an issue of thrift, again in opposing ways.

What the father chooses to say about events like these helps the child to learn to interpret the world around her.

In schools, teachers have many similar opportunities to help students understand the things that take place around them. In an elementary school, how would teachers react to a primary student's distress at seeing a cat injured by a car on the road in front of the school? In secondary schools, how are students helped to understand a fellow student's injury in an accident? Or how does the teaching staff share a student's pride and excitement at winning a tournament, academic or sporting?

3. Didactic Instruction

a) Direct

There are many programs that teach directly about emotional growth, interpersonal skill development or moral development. These programs take as their subject matter the knowledge, skills and attitudes of these domains. Often "affective skills" programs actually seek to teach interpersonal skills, such as empathic or active listening. This knowledge, these skills and these attitudes are also included as objectives in many regular curricula, of which the health, and career and life management curricula particularly stand out.

A difficulty with much direct teaching in these domains is that we, ourselves, are so unaware of many of our own skills. For example, think about walking in the neighborhood of another ethnic group. In this situation people tend to lower their heads, curl their shoulders so their chests do not protrude, keep their hands in front of or close to their bodies and keep their eyes down. How many people are aware that they engage in this "posture of territorial behaviour"? While making us feel less noticeable, it also inhibits communication. Are we aware of this? To what or to whom do we usually ascribe our lack of communication in these situations? How can we then teach about how people act in such situations, when we're not consciously aware of it ourselves?

Teachers may feel uncomfortable with direct teaching in the social, emotional and moral domains without specific training. It is important to coordinate those skills which are taught so that they do not become a series of techniques lacking integration. Finally, it must be kept in mind that affective, interpersonal and moral knowledge and skills are closely linked to the context of their use. It is not useful to teach these skills in isolation from the context in which they will be needed.

b) Indirect

The regular curricula include many objectives in the emotional, interpersonal and moral domains. Through the use of modelling and mediated learning, these affective, interpersonal and moral objectives can be taught when using curricular content. Selecting appropriate materials and allowing sufficient time (such as time for discussions) are important in this regard. This is easier to do in some areas such as the social sciences, language arts, or physical education, than in other areas, such as mathematics. Even in mathematics, however, some of these objectives can be accomplished For example, we send messages in mathematics classes about how people are treated when they make errors, and when they do well.

4. Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is that learning which occurs through doing, rather than through just listening or reading. This approach is a particularly valuable component of any effort to teach interpersonal skills. Essentially, one learns to live with other people by living with other people. That is, one learns by doing.

Experiential learning is operative when students are fully involved, through lessons linked to their own needs, experiences or interests. Individuals need to develop a sense of responsibility for their own participation -- and for facilitating others' participation -- in the learning process. Cooperative learning techniques are especially useful in achieving these ends, both in academic and in moral learning.

Teaching through experiential means has a place in the school setting. To fully use experience though, one must reflect upon it. The classroom can be a safe place to reflect on the interpersonal learning that occurs in activities before school, during the noon hour, or riding the bus.

CONCLUSION

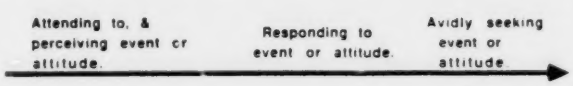
In developing curricula, a traditional and useful tool for developers has been the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. For the social sphere, the second handbook, dealing with the Affective Domain, by Krathwolhl, Bloom and Masia is relevant. This document seeks to organize how educational objectives are laid out, so that there can be precision in the curriculum developer's art.

The organization of affective objectives is laid out according to logical rather than developmental principles. The central principle used for organizing affective objectives is internalization. By this, one understands that lower objectives may be imposed on students, but at higher levels, students must incorporate the values or attitudes as their own. Developmentally, students often internalize values and attitudes before they understand them cognitively.

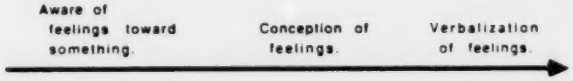
There are three dimensions to the stratifications of affective objectives. First, there is a continuum of awareness. The student ranges from perceiving an event or attitude through attending to it, responding to it and, finally, avidly seeking it. Second, students gradually develop their feelings toward something into a conception of it and toward an ability to verbalize the conception. Clearly, there is a cognitive element to this as well. Third, students come to organize their attitudes and values into more or less coherent clusters or complexes. The goal of coherency of values is not equally achieved in all areas by all adults.

Dimensions to Consider When Generating Affective Objectives

1. Awareness Continuum:



2. Conceptualization Continuum:



3. Organizational Continuum

The value in having a clear hierarchy of educational objectives is that curriculum developers are more aware of the intensity and complexity they are requiring of students. It helps to ensure the appropriate variety of objectives are included in curriculum. This then allows them to plan sufficient time for the activities required to bring students to the level prescribed. Similarly, in evaluating students, the clarity of objectives contributes to knowledgeable choice in determining methods of evaluation (such as the use of observation) as well as the accuracy of designing test

items whe e objective testing is possible.

Learning in he social sphere is an often implicit and complex business. We do not have l the information and research wi which we could draw all the definite onclusions we might wish.

It can be een, though, that the instructiona approaches discussed do not need to l used in isolation from one another. G od teachers will use a balance of a roaches appropriate to the objectives b ng taught. Regardless of the instruct nal approaches chosen, four key pr ciples will best foster affective, terpersonal and moral learning:

1. **Involvem nt** - Affective, interpersonal and moral learning are maximiz d when students are engaged a interactive processes, when in eractive rather than directive ducational practices are used and hen students are actively rather tha passively engaged.

2. **Practise and Application** - Opportunities must be made available to apply and practise the skills learned.

3. **Context** - Tasks need to be contextualized and related to the learner's experiences or interests.

4. **Feedback** - Feedback should be frequent, specific, informative and descriptive as well as indicate the relationship between the event and the student's response.

This monograph has discussed, selectively and briefly, an immense body of research. Although there are implications here for the development of curricula, the larger role in students' affective, interpersonal and moral growth lies with the people directly involved with those students. Schools are not the sole influence on students. However, the staffs of schools have a considerable effect on this kind of learning; they can make the significant difference even for students who have great personal difficulties.

APPENDIX

DUPONT (1979) FRAMES OF REFERENCE FOR PROCESSING EMOTIONS

Stage 1: Impersonal (ages 0 to 2)

Affect is undifferentiated and essentially unstructured, children are aware only of their own sensations and actions.

Stage 2: Heteronomous (ages 2 to 7)

Affect largely influenced by significant adults in the child's life.

Stage 3: Interpersonal (approximately ages 7 to 12)

Affect influenced by peers and the child's interactions with them.

Stage 4: Psychological (approximately ages 12 to 15)

Affect determined by one's own reflection and analysis, affect is increasingly invested in ideals, values and life plans.

FURTHER ELABORATION OF SELMAN'S STAGES

SOCIAL DOMAINS

STAGES OF INTERPERSONAL UNDERSTANDING	INDIVIDUAL	FRIENDSHIP	PEER GROUP	PARENT-CHILD
The Egocentric Undifferentiated Stages	- the child is not aware that another person may interpret a situation differently	- view conflict as a situation in which one party does not get to do what he or she wants because of the behavior of the other		- aware punishment follows misbehaviour but does not understand parents' motives
	- the child is becoming self-aware, is still unable to differentiate between inner psychological experiences and concrete external experiences	- Conflict most often resolved by physical attachment or withdrawal		
Subjective Perspective Taking Stage	- the distinction between awareness and unawareness is still quite vague	- conflicts are resolved by undoing the actions that cause the conflict, or by performing a positive substitute action	- trust in a friendship is based on getting the other person to do as the child wishes	
			- cooperation and co-ordination of activities is not evident	
			- loyalty is understood as conforming to the dictates of the group leader or other group members	- children consider their parents' motives for punishment
Reciprocal Perspective Taking	- The preadolescent distinguishes easily betwen outer (physical) and inner (psychological) reality and is aware the two need not be congruent	- aware that both parties contribute to conflict and must co-operate in seeking an effective solution	- leadership is based on skills in mediation, organization and co-ordination efforts	- punishment by parents now may be viewed as an expression of the parents' concern for the child's well-being
		- trust is based on reciprocity - even exchange of favours is important as well as mutual expressions of affection		

STAGES OF INTERPERSONAL UNDERSTANDING	INDIVIDUAL	FRIENDSHIP	PEER GROUP	PARENT-CHILD
Mutual Perception Taking	- self-awareness increases	- friendship is viewed as a series of interactions over an extended period of time	- leaders are viewed as encouragers, co-ordinators, catalysts, consolidators for the peer community	- punishment is viewed as less applicable to them than to younger children
	- there is an increasing comprehension of the relationship between self as subject and self as object	- a mutuality involved emotional support and sharing of common feelings	- loyalty requires a willingness to contribute to the welfare of the group; a kind of one-for-all loyalty	
		- effective working through a mutual problem seems to strengthen the commitment to friendship		
		- more personal concerns and intimacies are shared		
		- the relationship has more lasting consistency and one friend will stand up for the other "through thick and thin" even if there is no immediate benefit		
Indepth and Societal Perspective	- become aware that there are thoughts, feelings and motives of which they are unaware and so are not available to self-analysis	- interdependence - a balance between the mutuality of the previous and total independence is worth striving for	- leadership is viewed as created by the group	
		- trust means openness to change and growth as well as stability	- leader's role is to enhance the collective good	
			- loyalty means sacrificing personal goals for the good of the group	

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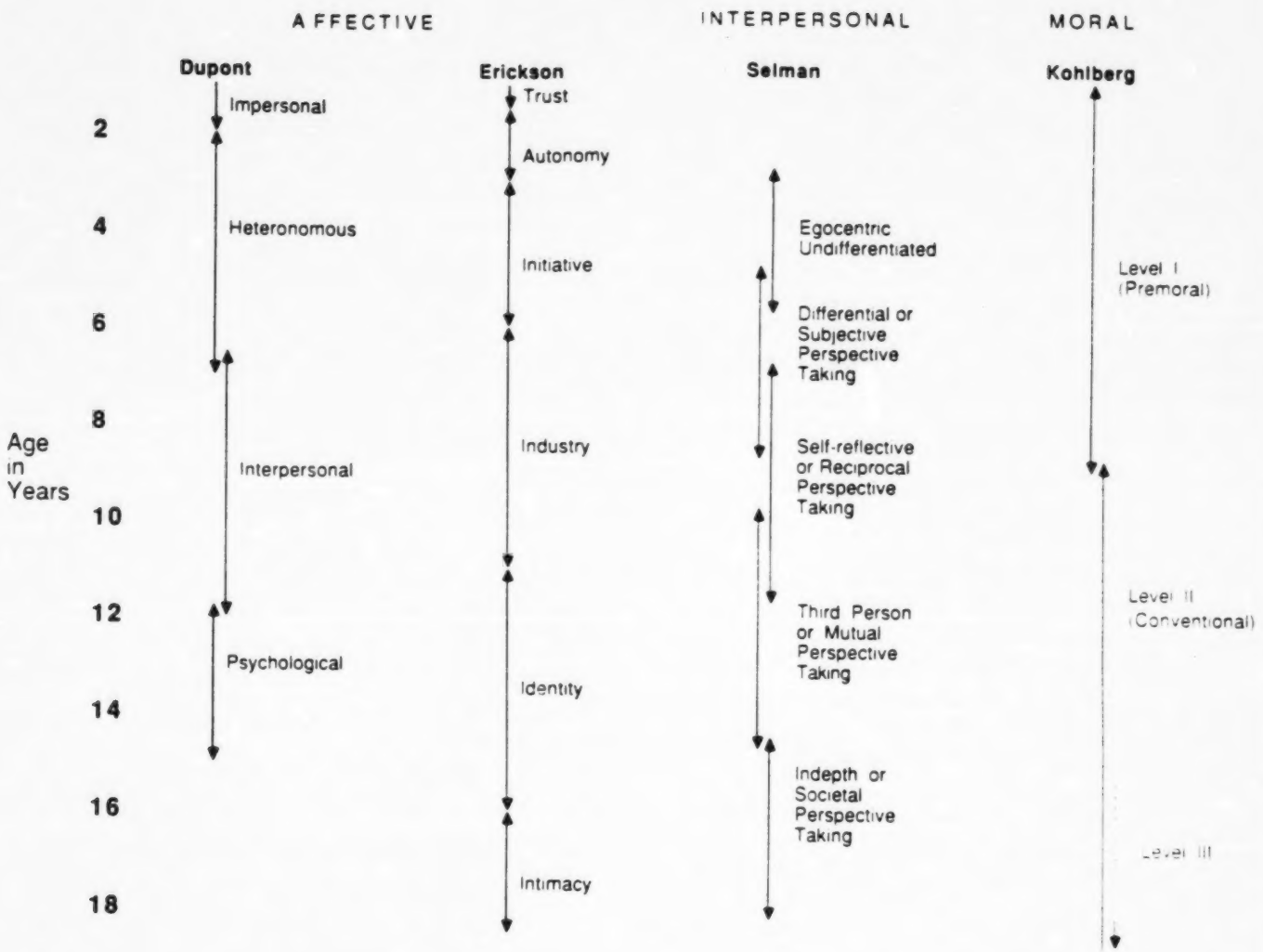
AFFECTIVE
INTERPERSONAL
MORAL
Dupont
Erickson
Selman
Kohlberg
Age in Years
2
4
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18
Impersonal
Heteronomous
Interpersonal
Psychological
Trust
Autonomy
Initiative
Industry
Identity
Intimacy
Egocentric Undifferentiated
Differential or Subjective Perspective Taking
Self-reflective or Reciprocal Perspective Taking
Third Person or Mutual Perspective Taking
Indepth or Societal Perspective Taking
Level I (Premoral)
Level II (Conventional)
Level III